Chapter 2

Theoretical Basis for Movable Boundary Calculations

2.1   Overview of Approach and Capabilities

This chapter presents the theories and concepts embodied in HEC-6. Information regarding implementation of these theories and concepts in HEC-6 is presented in Chapter 3.

2.1.1 General

HEC-6 processes a discharge hydrograph as a sequence of steady flows of variable durations. Using continuity of sediment, changes are calculated with respect to time and distance along the study reach for the following: total sediment load, volume and gradation of sediment that is scoured or deposited, armoring of the bed surface, and the cross section elevations. In addition, sediment outflow at the downstream end of the study reach is calculated. The location and amount of material to be dredged can be obtained if desired.

2.1.2 Geometry

Geometry of the river system is represented by cross sections which are specified by coordinate points (stations and elevations) and the distances between cross sections. HEC-6 raises or lowers cross section elevations to reflect deposition and scour. The horizontal locations of the channel banks are considered fixed and the floodplains on each side of the channel are considered as having fixed ground locations; however, they will be moved vertically if they are within the movable bed limits specified by the user.

2.1.3 Hydraulics and Hydrology

The water discharge hydrograph is approximated by a sequence of steady flow discharges, each of which continues for a specified period of time. Water surface profiles are calculated for each flow using the standard-step method to solve the energy and continuity equations. Friction loss is calculated by Manning's equation and expansion and contraction losses are calculated if the loss coefficients are specified. Hydraulic roughness is described by Manning's n values and can vary from cross section to cross section. At each cross section n values may vary vertically or with discharge.

The downstream water surface elevation must be specified for subcritical water surface profile calculations. In the case of a reservoir the operating rule may be utilized, but if open river conditions exist, a stage-discharge rating curve is usually specified as the downstream boundary condition. A boundary condition or operating rule may be used at any location along the main stem or tributaries.

2.1.4   Sediment Transport

Inflowing sediment loads are related to water discharge by sediment-discharge curves for the upstream boundaries of the main stem, tributaries and local inflow points. For realistic computation of stream behavior, particularly scour and stable conditions, the gradation of the material forming the stream bed must be measured. HEC-6 allows a different gradation at each cross section. If only deposition is expected, the gradation of material in the bed is less important.

Sediment gradations are classified by grain size using the American Geophysical Union scale. HEC-6 will compute transport potential for clay (particles less than 0.004 mm diameter), four classes of silt (0.004-0.0625 mm), five classes of sand (from very fine sand, 0.0625 mm, to very coarse sand, 2.0 mm), five classes of gravel (from very fine gravel, 2.0 mm, to very coarse gravel, 64 mm), two class of cobbles (from small, 64mm, to large cobbles, 256mm) and three classes of boulders (from small, 256mm, to large boulders, 2048mm).

Transport potential is calculated at each cross section using hydraulic information from the water surface profile calculation (e.g., width, depth, energy slope, and flow velocity) and the gradation of bed material. Sediment is routed downstream after the backwater computations are made for each successive discharge (time step).

2.2   Theoretical Basis for Hydraulic Calculations

The basis for water surface profile calculations is essentially Method II, which is described in "Backwater Curves in River Channels," EM 1110-2-1409 (USACE 1959). Conveyance is calculated from average areas and average hydraulic radii for adjacent cross sections.

2.2.1   Equations for Water Surface Profile Calculations

The hydraulic parameters needed to calculate sediment transport potential are velocity, depth, width and energy slope - all of which are obtained from water surface profile calculations. The one-dimensional energy equation (Equation 2-1) is solved using the standard step method and the hydraulic parameters are calculated at each cross section for each successive discharge. Figure 2-1 shows a representation of the terms in the energy equation.
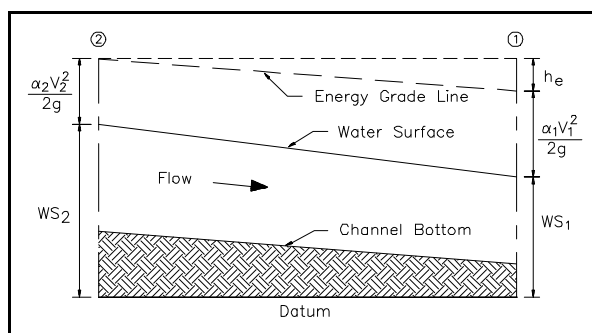

Figure 2-1
Energy Equation Terms

$$WS_2 + \frac{\alpha_2 V_2^2}{2g} = WS_1 + \frac{\alpha_1 V_1^2}{2g} + h_e \qquad (2\text{-}1)$$

where: g = acceleration of gravity
h_e = energy loss
V_1, V_2 = average velocities (total discharge ÷ total flow area) at ends of reach
WS_1, WS_2 = water surface elevations at ends of reach
α_1, α_2 = velocity distribution coefficients for flow at ends of reach.

2.2.2 Hydraulic Losses

2.2.2.1   Friction Losses

River geometry is specified by cross sections and reach lengths; friction losses are calculated by Method II (USACE 1959). The energy loss term, h_e, in Equation 2-1 is composed of friction loss, h_f, and form losses, h_o, as shown in Equation 2-2. Only contraction and expansion losses are considered in the geometric form loss term.

$$h_e = h_f + h_o \qquad\qquad\qquad (2\text{-}2)$$

To approximate the transverse distribution of flow, the river is divided into strips having similar hydraulic properties in the direction of flow. Each cross section is subdivided into portions that are referred to as subsections. Friction, h_f, loss is calculated as shown below:

$$h_f = \left[\frac{Q}{K_t}\right]^2 \qquad\qquad\qquad (2\text{-}3)$$

in which:

$$K_t = \sum_{j=1}^{NSS} \left[\frac{1.49}{n_j}\right] \frac{\dfrac{(A_2 + A_1)_j}{2}\left[\dfrac{R_2 + R_1}{2}\right]^{2/3}_j}{L_j^{1/2}} \qquad\qquad (2\text{-}4)$$

where: A_1, A_2 = downstream and upstream area, respectively, of the flow normal to the cross sections

NSS = total number of subsections across each cross section

K_t = length-weighted subsection conveyance

L_j = length of the jth strip between subsections

n = Manning's roughness coefficient

Q = water discharge

R_1, R_2 = downstream and upstream hydraulic radius, respectively.

2.2.2.2   Other Losses

Energy losses due to contractions and expansions are computed by the following equation:

$$h_o = C_L \left| \frac{{}_2 V_2^2}{2g} - \frac{{}_1 V_1^2}{2g} \right| \qquad\qquad (2\text{-}5)$$

where: C_L = loss coefficient for expansion or contraction

If the quantity within the absolute value notation is negative, flow is contracting and C_L is the coefficient of contraction; if it is positive, flow is expanding and C_L is the coefficient of expansion.

2.2.3   Computation of Hydraulic Elements

Each cross section is defined by coordinates (X,Y) as shown in Figure 2-2.   For convenience of assigning *n* values, reach lengths, etc., each cross section is divided into subsections, usually consisting of a main channel, with left and right overbanks.
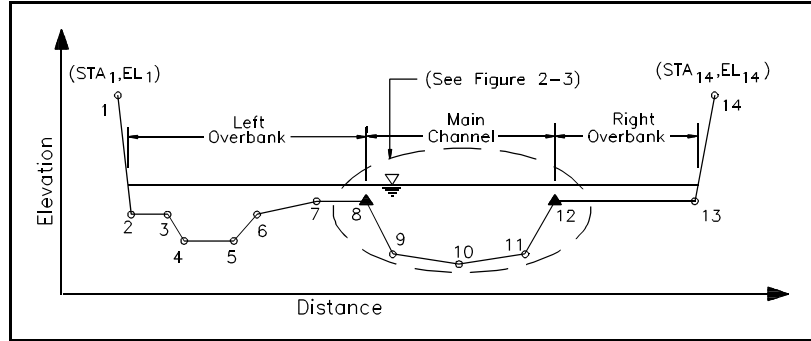

Figure 2-2
Typical Representation of a Cross Section
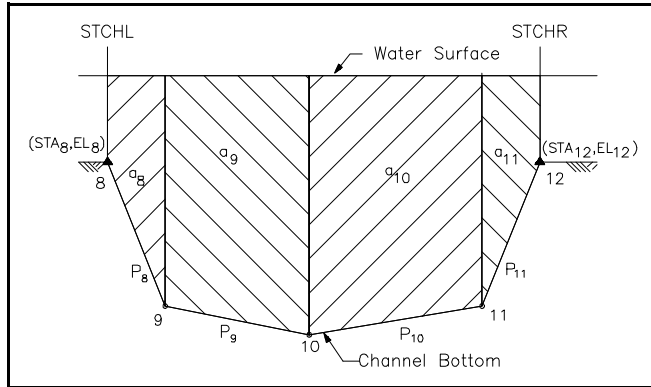
2.2.3.1   Subsection Area

Figure 2-3
Incremental Areas in Channel Subsection

The area of each subsection is computed by summing incremental areas below the water surface between consecutive coordinates of the cross section.   Figure 2-3 illustrates the technique with a subsection of Figure 2-2 where STCHL and STCHR are the lateral boundaries of the subsection.

The area of the channel subsection is:

$$A_j = a_8 + a_9 + a_{10} + a_{11} \qquad (2\text{-}6)$$

where: a_i = incremental area.

The equation for an incremental area, a_i, is:

$$a_i = \frac{(d_i + d_{i-1})\, W}{2} \qquad (2\text{-}7)$$

where: d_i, d_{i+1}
= the left and right depth of each incremental area, respectively (see Figure 2-4)
W = width of an incremental area.

Normally, d_i, d_{i+1} and W are defined by two consecutive cross section coordinate points, as shown in Figure 2-4.   However at the first and last increments in each subsection, a subsection station defines one side of the incremental area.   If the subsection station does not coincide with an X coordinate, straight line interpolation is used to compute the length of either, d_i, d_{i+1}, or both.
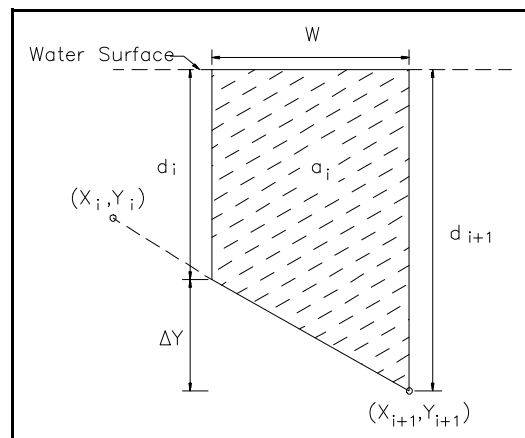

Figure 2-4
Incremental Area

2.2.3.2   Wetted Perimeter

The wetted perimeter, $\mathbf{P}$, is computed as the length of the cross section below the water surface. In the case of Figure 2-3, this is:

$$P = P_8 + P_9 + P_{10} + P_{11} \qquad\qquad (2\text{-}8)$$

where: $\mathbf{P_i}$ = incremental wetted perimeter.

The equation for the wetted perimeter of the incremental area in Figure 2-4 is:

$$P_i = (\Delta Y^2 + W^2)^{1/2} \qquad\qquad (2\text{-}9)$$

where: ΔY and $\mathbf{W}$ are as shown in Figure 2-4.

Note that only the distance between coordinate points is considered in $\mathbf{p_i}$, not the depths $\mathbf{d_i}$ and $\mathbf{d_{i+1}}$. In other words, friction due to shear forces between subsections is not considered.

2.2.3.3   Hydraulic Radius

The hydraulic radius, $\mathbf{R}$, is calculated for each subsection, $_j$, by:

$$R_j = \frac{A_j}{P_j} \qquad\qquad (2\text{-}10)$$

where: $\mathbf{A_j}$ = area of subsection
$\mathbf{P_j}$ = wetted perimeter of subsection
$\mathbf{R_j}$ = hydraulic radius of subsection.

2.2.3.4   Conveyance

The conveyance, $\mathbf{K_j}$, is computed for each subsection, $_j$, by:

$$K_j = \frac{1.49}{n_j} A_j R_j^{2/3} \qquad\qquad (2\text{-}11)$$

The total conveyance, $\mathbf{K_t}$, in the cross section is:

$$K_t = \sum_{j=1}^{NSS} K_j \qquad\qquad (2\text{-}12)$$

where: $\mathbf{NSS}$ = total number of subsections.

2.2.3.5   Velocity Distribution Factor, Alpha

Alpha is an energy correction factor to account for the transverse distribution of velocity across the floodplains and channel. Large values of alpha (>2) will occur if the depth of flow on the overbanks is shallow, the conveyance is small, and the area is large. Alpha is computed as follows:

$$\frac{\displaystyle\sum_{j=1}^{NSS}\left[\frac{K_j^3}{A_j^2}\right]}{\left[\frac{K_t^3}{A_t^2}\right]} \qquad\qquad (2\text{-}13)$$

2.2.3.6   Effective Depth and Width

The sediment transport capacity for non-rectangular sections is calculated using a weighted depth, **EFD**, called the effective depth. The corresponding effective width, **EFW** is calculated from the effective depth to preserve $A(D^{2/3})$ for the cross section.

$$\text{EFD} = \frac{\sum\limits_{i=1}^{i_t} D_{avg}\, a_i\, D_{avg}^{2/3}}{\sum\limits_{i=1}^{i_t} a_i\, D_{avg}^{2/3}} \tag{2-14}$$

$$\text{EFW} = \frac{\sum\limits_{i=1}^{i_t} a_i\, D_{avg}^{2/3}}{\text{EFD}^{5/3}} \tag{2-15}$$

where: a_i = flow area of each trapezoidal element
        D_{avg} = average water depth of each trapezoidal element
        i_t = the total number of trapezoidal elements in a subsection

The sediment transport computation is based upon hydraulics of the main channel only; therefore, the hydraulic elements are from the geometry within the channel limits only.

2.2.3.7   Critical Depth Calculations

To assess if the backwater profiles remain above critical depth, the critical section factor, **CRT**, is computed using Equation 2-16, and compared with the computed section factor at each cross section.

$$\text{CRT} = \frac{Q}{\left(\dfrac{g}{}\right)^{1/2}} \tag{2-16}$$

A computed section factor, **ZSQ**, is calculated for comparison to **CRT**.

$$\text{ZSQ} = A_t \left(\frac{A_t}{W_t}\right)^{1/2} \tag{2-17}$$

where: A_t = total area of cross section
        W_t = total water surface width

If **CRT** is less than **ZSQ**, subcritical flow exists and computations continue. Otherwise, critical depth is calculated by tracing the specific energy curve to the elevation of minimum total energy and the resulting water surface elevation is compared with the water surface elevation calculated by Equation 2-1 to decide if flow is supercritical. If supercritical flow is indicated, flow depth is determined as described in the following section.

2.2.3.8   Supercritical Flow

In the standard step method for water surface profile computations, calculations proceed from downstream to upstream based upon the reach's starting water surface elevation. At each cross section, HEC-6 examines the appropriate hydraulic parameters to determine if the reach is a subcritical or supercritical flow reach. If flow is subcritical, computations proceed upstream in the manner described in Section 2.2.1. If it is supercritical, HEC-6 approximates the channel geometry using the effective depth and width as described in Section 2.2.3.6 and determines the water surface elevation based upon the supercritical normal depth.

If a subcritical reach is eventually encountered, the downstream cross section of the reach is assumed to be at critical depth and backwater computations proceed upstream for assumed subcritical flow conditions. Note that for subcritical flow, M1 and M2 curves are possible in HEC-6 but under supercritical flow, S1 and S2 curves are not computed because only supercritical normal flow depths are calculated. An example of such a series of profiles is shown in Figure 2-5.
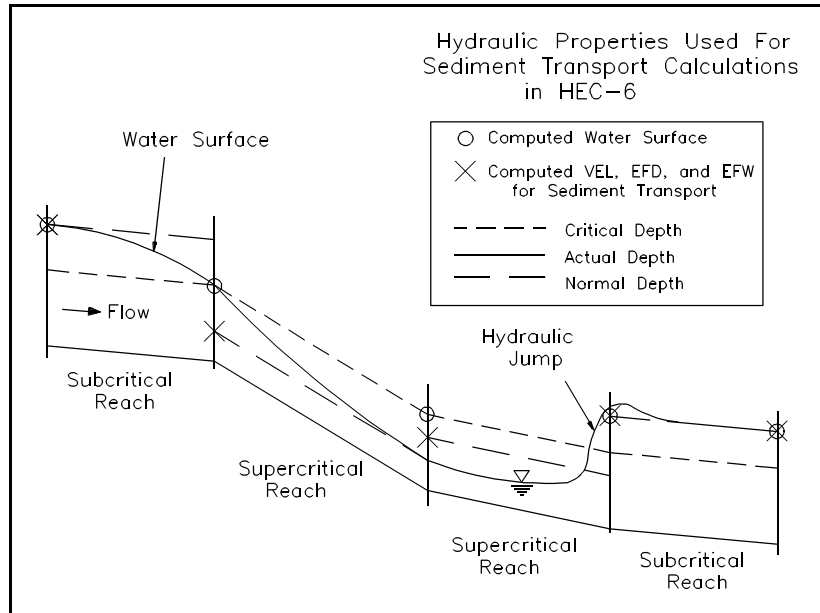

Figure 2-5
Examples of Subcritical, Critical, and Supercritical Flow Simulations in HEC-6

2.2.3.9   Convergence Equations

Three major steps are used to converge computational trials in computing the upstream cross section water surface elevation. Figure 2-6 demonstrates the sequence of successive trials to converge the standard step method.

Figure 2-6
Convergence of Assumed and Computed Water Surface Elevations

Computational Procedure:

Trial 1:   Based on the previous water surface elevation.

Trial 2:   Assumed change is ninety percent of ΔY_1

Trial 3:   Trial 1 and 2 elevations assumed are connected with a straight line and the computed Trial 1 and 2 solutions are also connected with a straight line. The intersection of these lines becomes Trial 3's assumed value.
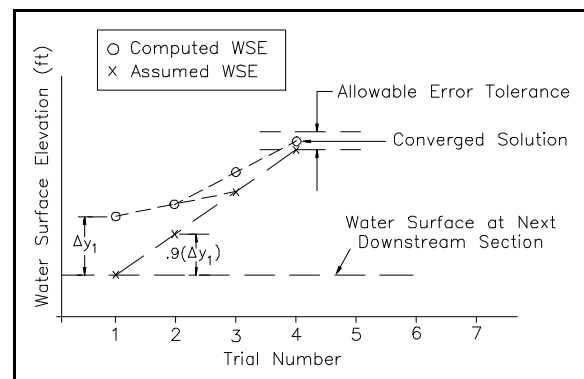
Trial 4, etc.:
> This process continues until the assumed and computed values of water surface elevation are within the allowable error tolerance. If they are, the computed water surface elevation becomes the converged solution.

Oscillation between positive and negative "error" is permitted. A note is printed in the event a solution is "forced" (after 20 trials) even though the "error" is greater than the allowable error. In this case, the last computed water surface elevation is used.

2.2.4   Representative Hydraulic Parameters Used in Sediment Calculations

Hydraulic parameters are converted into representative (weighted) values for each reach prior to calculating transport capacity. General equations are shown below. These weighting factors can be modified with input data.

Interior Point (section)

$$VEL \quad XID \quad VEL(K\ 1) \quad XIN \quad VEL(K) \quad XIU \quad VEL(K\ 1) \tag{2-18}$$

$$EFD \quad XID \quad EFD(K\ 1) \quad XIN \quad EFD(K) \quad XIU \quad EFD(K\ 1) \tag{2-19}$$

$$EFW \quad XID \quad EFW(K\ 1) \quad XIN \quad EFW(K) \quad XIU \quad EFW(K\ 1) \tag{2-20}$$

$$SLO \quad 0.5 \quad [SLO(K) \quad SLO(K\ 1)] \tag{2-21}$$

Upstream Point (section)

$$VEL \quad UBN \quad VEL(K) \quad UBI \quad VEL(K\ 1) \tag{2-22}$$

$$EFD \quad UBN \quad EFD(K) \quad UBI \quad EFD(K\ 1) \tag{2-23}$$

$$EFW \quad UBN \quad EFW(K) \quad UBI \quad EFW(K\ 1) \tag{2-24}$$

$$SLO \quad SLO(K) \tag{2-25}$$

Downstream Point (section)

$$VEL \quad DBN \quad VEL(K) \quad DBI \quad VEL(K\ 1) \tag{2-26}$$

$$EFD \quad DBN \quad EFD(K) \quad DBI \quad EFD(K\ 1) \tag{2-27}$$

$$EFW \quad DBN \quad EFW(K) \quad DBI \quad EFW(K\ 1) \tag{2-28}$$

$$SLO \quad SLO(K) \tag{2-29}$$

where: **DBN, DBI** = coefficients for downstream reach boundary
K-1, K, K+1 = downstream, midpoint, and upstream locations, respectively, of a reach
SLO   = friction slope
UBN, UBI = coefficients for upstream reach boundary
VEL   = weighted velocity of the reach
XID, XIN, XIU = downstream, interior, and upstream coefficients, respectively, for interior points.

Several different weighting factors were investigated during the formulation of the computation scheme. Table 2-1 shows the set of factors which appeared to give the most stable calculation and thereby permits the longest time steps (Scheme 1) and the set which is the most sensitive to changes in bed elevation but requires shorter time steps to be stable (Scheme 2). Scheme 1 is often the best choice because the computed energy slope may vary drastically from section-to-section whereas the actual river's behavior may be dependent upon reach properties. HEC-6 defaults to Scheme 2 but this can be changed by entering other values for the weighting factors on the **I5** record.

Table 2-1.
Representative Hydraulic Parameter Weighting Factors

	DBI	**DBN**	**XID**	**XIN**	**XIU**	**UBI**	**UBN**	
Scheme 1	0.5	0.5	0.25	0.5	0.25	0.0	1.0	Most Stable
Scheme 2	0.0	1.0	0.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	Most Sensitive

2.2.5 Hydraulic Roughness

Boundary roughness of an alluvial stream is closely tied to sediment transport and the movement of bed material. Energy losses for water surface profile calculations must include the effects of all losses: grain roughness of the movable bed, drag losses from bed forms such as ripples and dunes, bank irregularities, vegetation, contraction/expansion losses, bend losses, and junction losses. All these losses except the contraction/expansion losses are embodied in a single roughness parameter, Manning's *n*.

2.3   Theoretical Basis for Sediment Calculations

Sediment transport rates are calculated for each flow in the hydrograph for each grain size. The transport potential is calculated for each grain size class in the bed as though that size comprised 100% of the bed material. Transport potential is then multiplied by the fraction of each size class present in the bed at that time to yield the transport capacity for that size class. These fractions often change significantly during a time step, therefore an iteration technique is used to permit these changes to effect the transport capacity. The basis for adjusting bed elevations for scour or deposition is the Exner equation (see Section 2.3.1.3).

2.3.1 Equation for Continuity of Sediment Material

2.3.1.1   Control Volume

Each cross section represents a control volume. The control volume width is usually equal to the movable bed width and its depth extends from the water surface to the top of bedrock or other geological control beneath the bed surface. In areas where no bedrock exists, an arbitrary limit (called the "model bottom") is assigned (see Figure 2-7).

The control volume for cross section 2 is represented by the heavy dashed lines. The control volumes for cross sections 1 and 3 join that for cross section 2, etc.

The sediment continuity equation is written for this control volume; however, the energy equation is written between cross sections. Because descriptions of both sediment continuity and conservation of energy should enclose the same space; and because the averaging of two cross sections tends to smooth numerical results, the shape of the control volume is conceptually deformed.
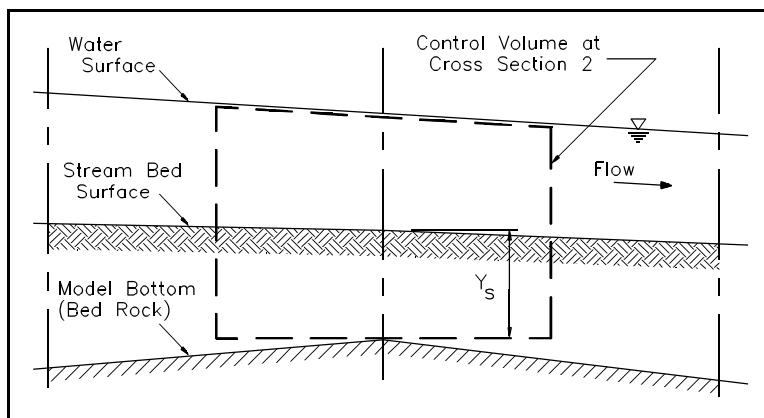

Figure 2-7
Control Volume for Bed Material

The amount of sediment in the stream bed, using an average end area approximation, is:

$$V_{sed} = B_o Y_s \frac{L_u + L_d}{2} \qquad (2\text{-}30)$$

where: B_o
= width of the movable bed
L_u, L_d =
length of the upstream and downstream reach, respectively, used in control volume computation
V_{sed} = volume of sediment in control volume
Y_s = depth of sediment in control volume.

For a water depth, D, the volume of fluid in the water column is:

$$V_f = B_o D \frac{L_u + L_d}{2} \qquad (2\text{-}31)$$

B_o and D are hydraulic parameters, width and depth, which are calculated by averaging over the same space used in solving the energy equation as described in Sections 2.2.1 and 2.2.4.

The solution of the continuity of sediment equation assumes that the initial concentration of suspended bed material is negligible. That is, all bed material is contained in the sediment reservoir at the start of the computation interval and is returned to the sediment reservoir at the end of the computation interval. Therefore, no initial concentration of bed material load need be specified in the control volume.

The hydraulic parameters, bed material gradation and calculated transport capacity are assumed to be uniform throughout the control volume. The inflowing sediment load is assumed to be mixed uniformly with sediment existing in the control volume. HEC-6 assumes instantaneous diffusion of all grain size classes on a control volume basis.

2.3.1.2   Concepts of the Control Volume

The control volume concept employed in HEC-6 represents the alluvium of a natural river. Over time, the river will exchange sediment with its boundaries both vertically and laterally, changing its shape by forming channels, natural levees, meanders, islands, and other plan forms. HEC-6, however, only models vertical sediment exchange with the bed; the width and depth of which are user defined. Correct reproduction of the natural river system depends on modeling the proper exchange of sediment between the flow field and the bed sediment. The physics of that exchange process are not well understood.
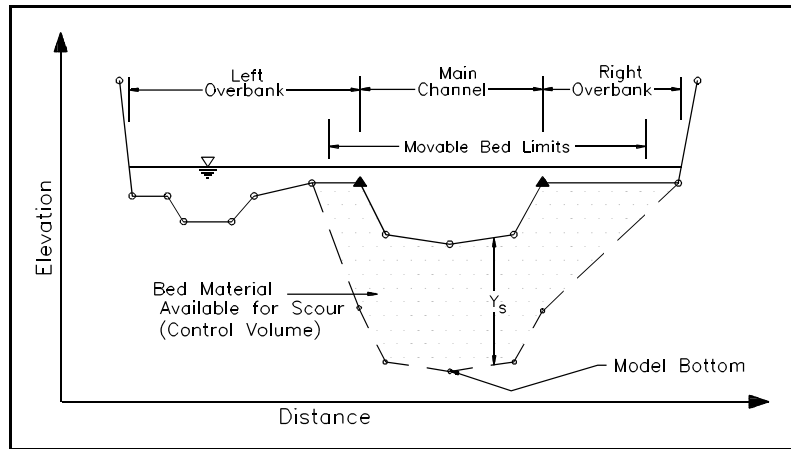

Figure 2-8
Sediment Material in the Streambed

HEC-6 accounts for two sediment sources; the sediment in the inflowing water and the bed sediment. The inflowing sediment load is a boundary condition and is prescribed with input data. The bed sediment control volume provides the source-sink component and is also prescribed with input data.

Transport theory for sand and larger sizes relates the transport rate to the gradation of sediment particles on the bed surface and the flow hydraulics. Armor calculations require the gradation of material beneath the bed surface. The depth to bedrock or some other material that might prevent degradation should also be identified to limit the scour process. These requirements are addressed in HEC-6 by separately computing the bed surface gradation and the sub-surface gradation.

The coordinates connected by the solid line in Figure 2-8 define the initial cross section shape at the beginning of a simulation. For scour conditions, the difference between the inflowing sediment load and the reach's transport capacity is converted to a scour volume. After each time step, the coordinates within the "movable bed" are lowered by an amount which, when multiplied by the movable bed width and the representative reach length, equals the required scour volume. If a model bottom elevation is not specified in the initial conditions, a default value of 10 ft is used, which then becomes the maximum depth of bed material available for scour.

2.3.1.3   Exner Equation

The above description of the processes of scour and deposition must be converted into numerical algorithms for computer simulation. The basis for simulating vertical movement of the bed is the continuity equation for sediment material (the Exner equation):

$$\frac{G}{x} \quad B_o \quad \frac{Y_s}{t} \quad 0 \tag{2-32}$$

where: B_o
=   width of movable bed
t = time
G = average sediment discharge (ft^3/sec) rate during time step ϵt
x = distance along the channel
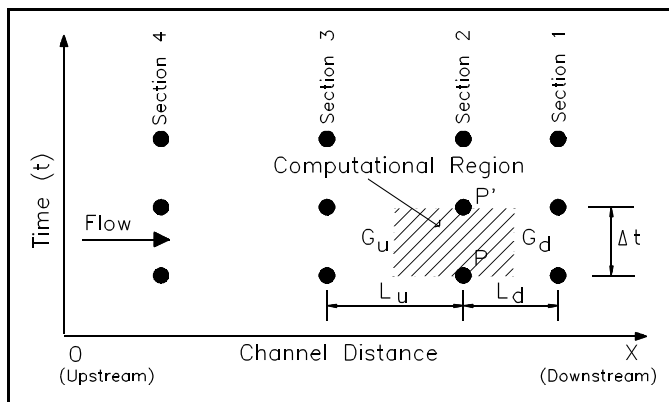Y_s = depth of sediment in control volume.

Figure 2-9
Computation Grid

Equations 2-33 and 2-34 represents the Exner Equation expressed in finite difference form for point P using the terms shown in Figure 2-9.

$$\frac{G_d - G_u}{0.5(L_d + L_u)} + \frac{B_{sp}(Y_{sp} - Y'_{sp})}{\Delta t} = 0 \qquad (2\text{-}33)$$

$$Y'_{sp} = Y_{sp} - \frac{\Delta t}{(0.5)B_{SP}}\left[\frac{G_d - G_u}{L_d + L_u}\right] \qquad (2\text{-}34)$$

where: B_{sp} = width of movable bed at point P

G_u, G_d = sediment loads at the upstream and downstream cross sections, respectively

L_u, L_d = upstream and downstream reach lengths, respectively, between cross sections

Y_{sp}, Y'_{sp} = depth of sediment before and after time step, respectively, at point P

0.5 = the "volume shape factor" which weights the upstream and downstream reach lengths

Δt = computational time step

The initial depth of bed material at point P defines the initial value of Y_{sp}. The sediment load, G_u, is the amount of sediment, by grain size, entering the control volume from the upstream control volume. For the upstream-most reach, this is the inflowing load boundary condition provided by the user. The sediment leaving the control volume, G_d, becomes the G_u for the next downstream control volume.

The sediment load, G_d, is calculated by considering the transport capacity at point P, the sediment inflow, availability of material in the bed, and armoring. The difference between G_d and G_u is the amount of material deposited or scoured in the reach labelled as "computational region" on Figure 2-9, and is converted to a change in bed elevation using Equation 2-34.

The transport potential of each grain size is calculated for the hydraulic conditions at the beginning of the time interval and is not recalculated during that interval. Therefore, it is important that each time interval be short enough so that changes in bed elevation due to scour or deposition during that time interval do not significantly influence the transport potential by the end of the time interval. Fractions of a day are typical time steps for large water discharges and several days or even months may be satisfactory for low flows. The amount of change in bed elevation that is acceptable in one time step is a matter of judgment. Good results have been achieved by using either 1 ft or 10% of the water depth, whichever is less, as the allowable bed change in a computational time interval. The gradation of the bed material, however, **is** recalculated during the time interval because the amount of material transported is very sensitive to the gradation of bed material.

2.3.1.4   Bed Gradation Recomputations

HEC-6 solves the Exner equation for continuity of sediment. If transport capacity is greater than the load entering the control volume, available sediment is removed from the bed to satisfy continuity. Since transport capacity for a given size depends upon the fraction of that size on the bed, it is necessary to frequently recalculate fractions present as sediment is exchanged with the bed. The number of exchange increments, **SPI**, during a time step is theoretically related to the time step length, Δt, velocity, and reach length in each reach by:

$$\text{NO. OF EXCHANGE INCREMENTS} \quad \frac{t \quad \text{VELOCITY}}{\text{REACH LENGTH}} \tag{2-35}$$

Usually the number of exchange increments can be less than this without generating significant numerical problems. Specify SPI in field 2 of the **I1** record. Initially, SPI should be set to zero (which invokes Equation 2-35) and an extreme hydrologic event simulated. This should be the most stable (and computationally intensive) case. Then, starting from SPI=50 or more, one should decrease it in increments of 10 until the results become significantly different from the results with SPI=0. Use the smallest SPI that gives a solution close to that obtained with SPI=0.

2.3.2 Determination of the Active and Inactive Layers

HEC-6 implements the concept of an active and an inactive bed layer. The active layer is assumed to be continually mixed by the flow, but it can have a surface of slow moving particles that shield the finer particles from being entrained in the flow. Two different processes are simulated: (1) Mixing that occurs between the bed sediment particles and the fluid-sediment mixture due to the energy in the moving fluid and, (2) Mixing that occurs between the active layer and the inactive layer due to the movement of the bed surface. The mixing mechanisms are attributed to large scale turbulence and bed shear stress from the moving water. The mixing depth (termed "equilibrium depth") is expressed as a function of flow intensity (unit discharge), energy slope, and particle size.

2.3.2.1 Equilibrium Depth

The minimum energy hydraulic condition at which a particular grain size will just be stationary on the bed surface can be calculated by combining Manning's, Strickler's, and Einstein's equations, respectively:

$$V \quad \frac{1.49}{n} R^{2/3} S_f^{1/2} \tag{2-36}$$

$$n \quad \frac{d^{1/6}}{29.3} \tag{2-37}$$

$$\frac{s \quad f}{f} \quad \frac{d}{DS_f} \tag{2-38}$$

where: **d** =
grain diameter
   D =
water depth
   V =
water velocity
   €$_s$ =
density of sand grains
   €$_f$ =
density of water
   € =
transport intensity from Einstein's bed load function, related to the inverse of Shield's parameter
   S$_f$ =
friction slope

For negligible transport, **€** equals 30 or greater. Solving Equation 2-38 in terms of **S$_f$** for a specific gravity of sand of 2.65 and with **€** set at 30 yields:

$$S_f \qquad \frac{d}{18.\,18D} \qquad\qquad\qquad (2\text{--}39)$$

Combining this with the Manning and Strickler equations, in which R has been replaced with D, and multiplying velocity by depth to get unit discharge yields:

$$q = \frac{(1.49)(29.3)D^{5/3}}{d^{1/6}}\left[\frac{d}{18.18D}\right]^{1/2}$$

(2-40)

$$= 10.21 \ D^{7/6} \ D^{1/3}$$

where: q = water discharge per unit width of flow

The equilibrium depth for a given grain size and unit discharge is therefore:

$$D_e = D = \left[\frac{q}{10.21d^{1/3}}\right]^{6/7}$$

(2-41)

where: D_e = the minimum water depth for negligible sediment transport (i.e., equilibrium depth) for grain size d

2.3.3 Hydraulic Sorting of the Bed Material - Method 1

Two methods are available in HEC-6 for computing the changes in composition (gradation) of the bed material with time. These methods are presented below. Note that, because of the limitations of each, neither method will be appropriate for all conditions.

The primary restrictions on rate of scour are the thickness of the active bed layer and amount of surface area armored. The active bed is the layer of material between the bed surface and a hypothetical depth at which no transport occurs for the given gradation of bed material and flow conditions. The thickness of the active bed is calculated at the beginning of each interval. The amount of surface area armored is proportional to the amount of active bed removed by scour. The basis for stability of the armor layer is the work by Gessler (1970). It is assumed that the transport capacity can be satisfied, if the sediment is available, within each time step within each control volume. The depth of scour required to accumulate a sufficient amount of coarse surface material to armor the bed is calculated as follows: The number of grains times the surface area shielded by each grain equals the total surface area, SA, of a vertical column, as illustrated by Figure 2-10 and shown in Equations 2-42 and 2-43:
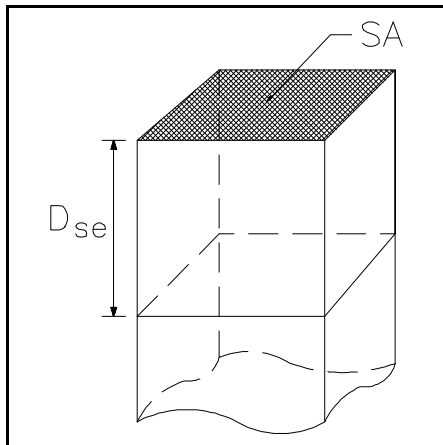

$$SA = N\left[\frac{d^2}{4}\right]$$

(2-42)

$$N = \frac{SA}{\left[\frac{d^2}{4}\right]}$$

(2-43)

where: N = number of sediment grains on bed surface (assuming spherical particles)
SA = bed surface area.

Figure 2-10
A Column of Bed Material
Having Surface Area (SA)

The surface area of the column may be partially shielded by a rock outcrop or an armor layer such that the potential scour area is less than the total surface area of the column. This reduces the number of grains, **N**, exposed to scour as follows:

$$N = \frac{A \cdot SAE}{\left[\frac{\pi d^2}{4}\right]} \tag{2-44}$$

where: **SAE** =
ratio of surface area of potential scour to total surface area

Assuming a mixture of grain sizes, the depth of scour required to produce the volume of a particular grain size that is sufficient to completely cover the bed to a thickness of one grain diameter is:

$$V_{se} = PC \cdot SA \cdot D_{se} = N \frac{\pi d_a^3}{6} \tag{2-45}$$

where: d_a =
smallest stable grain size in armor layer
D_{se} =
depth of bed material which must be removed to reach equilibrium in a time step
PC =
fraction of bed material coarser than size d_a
V_{se} =
volume of bed material which must be removed to reach equilibrium in a time step

Combining the surface area and volume equations and solving for the required depth of scour to fully develop the armor layer gives:

$$D_{se} = \left[\frac{SA \cdot SAE}{(\pi d^2/4)}\right]\left[\frac{(\pi d^3/6)}{PC \cdot SA}\right]$$
$$= \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)\left[\frac{SAE \cdot d}{PC}\right] \tag{2-46}$$

This equation is used with Equation 2-41 to calculate an equilibrium depth for a mixture of grain sizes. In order to determine the **PC** to use in Equation 2-46, the proper segment on the bed gradation curve is found by approximating the functional relationship between **d** and **PC** with a sequence of straight line segments as shown in Figure 2-11. The first step in locating the proper segment on the gradation curve is to calculate the equilibrium depths, $D1_{eq}$ and $D2_{eq}$ for the grain sizes at points 1 and 2 (Figure 2-12) using Equation 2-41. If the actual water depth, D_w is less than $D2_{eq}$, the straight line segment from 1 to 2 in Figure 2-11 defines the required functional relationship and the final equilibrium depth is calculated. If D_w is greater than the equilibrium depth for grain size at point 2, computations move down the gradation curve to points 2 to 3, 3 to 4, etc., until either the proper segment is located or the smallest grain size is
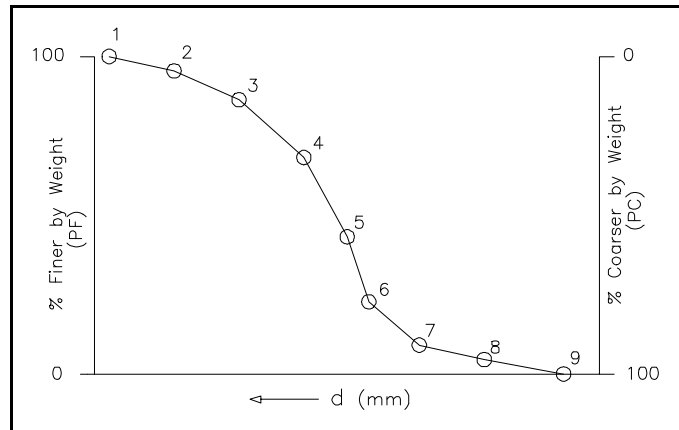

Figure 2-11
Gradation of Bed Material for Equilibrium Depth Computation

sufficient to armor the bed in which case scour will not occur.

HEC-6 designates the zone of material between the bed surface and equilibrium depth as the active layer and the zone from equilibrium depth to the model bottom as the inactive layer. The active layer provides the source of material forming the bed surface. The inactive layer initially has the same gradation as the parent bed. That gradation changes as material is deposited on the active layer and is exchanged with the inactive layer. Material is moved from one layer to the other layer as the active layer thickness changes with water depth, velocity and slope. Only the material in the active layer is subject to scour. HEC-6 allows sorting by grain size during the solution of the Exner equation which requires continuous accounting of the percent of sediment in each size class within each time step. When all material is removed from the active layer, the bed is completely armored for that hydraulic condition.
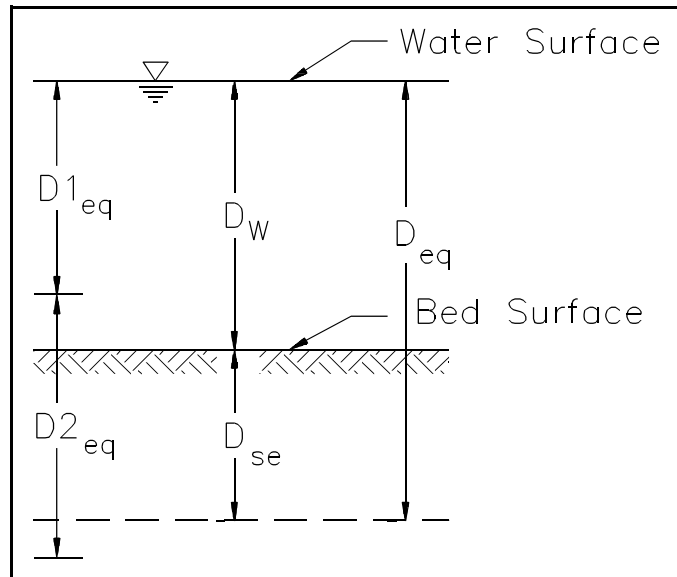

Figure 2-12
Equilibrium Depth Conditions

Assuming that the bed material is well mixed the rate of armoring is proportional to the volume of material removed, and the surface area exposed, **SAE**, for scour is:

$$\text{SAE} \quad \frac{\text{VOL}_A}{\text{VOL}_{SE}} \qquad\qquad (2\text{-}47)$$

where: $\textbf{VOL}_A$ = volume remaining in active layer
$\textbf{VOL}_{SE}$ = total volume in active layer

Leaching of the smaller particles from beneath the bed surface is prevented by adjusting the **SAE**. If a grain of bed sediment is smaller than the armor size, transport capacity is linearly decreased to zero as **SAE** decreases to 40% of the total bed surface (Harrison 1950). Thereafter, only the inflowing load of that grain size and smaller is transported through the reach. Particle sizes equal to and larger than the armor size are not constrained by this procedure.

2.3.3.1 Impact of the Active Layer on Depth of Erosion

After the depth of the active layer has been calculated, Method 1 completes the bed change calculation for that cross section. At each exchange increment (SPI), Method 1 checks the volume of sediment in the active layer. However, if all material has been removed before the last exchange increment of the time step, HEC-6 does not give a warning message. When this happens, the calculated erosion rates and depths will be too small.

To avoid such a condition, the duration of each computation time step must be tested and reduced until further reductions do not change the results. This procedure is similar to the calibration method described in HEC (1992).

2.3.3.2   Composition of the Active Layer

When computations begin, the gradation of the active layer defaults to the inactive layer gradation. At the beginning of each new time step, a new active layer gradation is calculated as follows. When the new depth of the active layer is greater than the existing depth, sediment is added to the active layer from the inactive layer. When the new depth of the active layer is less than the existing depth, sediment is removed from the active layer and added to the inactive layer. In either case, a new gradation is calculated for the new mixture in each layer.

2.3.3.3   Rate of Replenishing the Active Layer

A streambed having a gravel or cobble surface underlain by finer material is said to be armored. This condition does not reduce the stream's potential to transport sediment but rather limits the supply of sediment material so that transport theory cannot be used for grain sizes finer than those in the armor layer because their rate of movement is constrained by their availability, not the flow hydraulics. The armor layer forms when fines are transported away more rapidly than they are replaced by the inflowing load, allowing the coarser grain sizes to dominate the bed surface gradation and prevent further degradation.

The stability of the armor layer is based on a normal probability distribution function in which the ratio of critical to actual tractive force is the independent variable. Equations used for the two tractive forces are:

$$\tau_c = 0.047 (\gamma_s - \gamma) d_m \tag{2-48}$$

and

$$\tau_b = \gamma\, EFD\, S_f \tag{2-49}$$

where: d_m =
median grain diameter of the grain size class being tested for stability
EFD =
effective depth
S_f =
friction slope
0.047 =
Y-intercept of empirical data, from Shields (Vanoni 1975)
γ =
unit weight of water
γ_s =
unit weight of sediment particles
γ_b =
bed shear stress
γ_c =
critical bed shear stress, after Meyer-Peter and Müller (1948)

According to Gessler (1970), the stability of sediment particles on the bed surface is a probability relationship as shown on Figure 2-13. Shields' deterministic curve for movement of sediment particles corresponds to a tractive force ratio (γ_c/γ_b) of 1.0 in Figure 2-13 and indicates a stability probability of 0.5. As the actual tractive force increases, the tractive force ratio decreases to reflect a lower
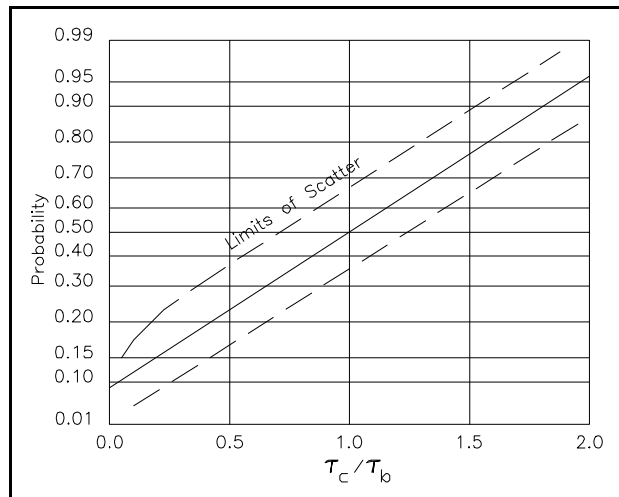

Figure 2-13
Probability of Grain Stability

probability that the grains will remain stationary. This does not guarantee particle movement, nor do tractive force

ratios greater than one guarantee that sediment particles will remain
stationary in the bed. This relationship is used to calculate a bed stability
coefficient, **BSF**, which includes the particle size distribution of the active
layer as follows:

$$BSF = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{NGS} PROB \cdot PROB \cdot PI_i \cdot d_{mi}}{\sum_{i=1}^{NGS} PROB \cdot PI_i \cdot d_{mi}} \qquad (2-50)$$

where: d_{mi} =
median grain diameter for grain size class i
i =
grain size class analyzed
NGS =
number of grain sizes present
PI =
fraction of bed composed of a grain size class
PROB =
probability that grains will stay in the bed

Gessler (1970) proposed that a stability factor equal to or greater than
0.65 indicates a stable armor layer. If a partially armored bed is stable for
a given hydraulic condition, material is taken from the active layer until
enough stable grains are left to cover the bed to the depth of one stable
grain size. If the armored bed is not stable, the layer is destroyed and a
completely new active bed is calculated.

The probability function could be used to determine the amount of armor
layer destroyed; however, a simple linear relationship is used instead. The
amount of armor layer destroyed is related to the magnitude of the bed
stability coefficient, **BSF**, as:

$$SAE_{i+1} = 1.0 - \frac{BSF}{0.65}(1.0 - SAE_i) \qquad (2-51)$$

where subscripts i and i+1 represent beginning and ending of an exchange
increment (see Section 2.3.1.4). Material from the active layer is removed
until the remaining stable grains are sufficient to cover the bed at the
ending **SAE**.

2.3.3.4   Influence of Armoring on Transport Capacity

All grain sizes are analyzed in each exchange increment. Before the next
increment, the surface area exposed for scour is calculated. In Einstein's
relationship, the hiding factor adjusts transport capacity to account for
armoring. In some other transport relationships, the transport capacity is
corrected for armoring by a parabolic relationship which attempts to account
for extra scour due to the presence of large individual sediment particles.
The relationship used in HEC-6 is:

$$FSAE = CSAE + (1.0 - CSAE) \cdot SAE^{BSAE} \qquad (2-52)$$

where: **BSAE** =
coefficient used in calculation of transport under armor conditions
CSAE =
fraction of transport capacity sufficient to pass inflowing sediment
discharge, used in armor layer calculations
FSAE =
transport capacity correction due to armoring

The value of **CSAE** is the fraction of transport capacity just sufficient to pass the inflowing sediment discharge with no deposition. HEC-6 assigns the value of 0.5 for **BSAE** unless input data specifies otherwise. **FSAE** varies between 0.5 and 1.0 and applies equally to all grain sizes.

2.3.3.5   Some Limitations of Method 1

This method for computing hydraulic sorting and armoring has exhibited the following shortcomings:

(1)   In rivers with large gradation coefficients it appeared that there was too much leaching of sands; i.e., insufficient "armoring".

(2)   The active layer was too thick in many large sand bed rivers which dampened hydraulic sorting.

(3)   A sediment continuity problem was observed when consolidated silts and clays were exchanged between the active and inactive layers.

2.3.4   Hydraulic Sorting of the Bed Material - Method 2

A second method of computing hydraulic sorting was developed to alleviate some of the limitations of Method 1. This algorithm is based on the concept that exchange of sediment particles occurs within a thin "cover layer" of bed material at the bed surface which is continually mixed by the flow. It is presumed that, as the bed progresses toward an equilibrium condition in which deposition and resuspension of each size class is balanced, the slow moving thin cover layer becomes coarser and serves as a shield, regulating the entrainment of finer particles below. If the cover layer is replenished by deposition from the water column, it will remain as a shield constraining the entrainment of finer material from below. Harrison (1950) observed that this shielding began to occur when as little as 40% of the bed surface was covered. If conditions change such that more material is scoured from, than deposited on, the cover layer; then the cover layer begins to disintegrate and more fine material can be removed from below. Eventually, the cover layer may be completely removed and the bed surface takes on the composition of the material below. This conceptual process replaces the concepts of "surface-area exposed," **SAE**, and "bed-stability factor," **BSF**, used in Method 1.

In Method 2 there are two components of the active layer; a cover layer that is retained from the previous time step and a sub-surface layer that is created at the beginning of the time step from the inactive layer. The sub-surface layer material is returned to the inactive layer at the end of the time step. The cover layer from the previous time step is limited to an arbitrary maximum thickness 2 ft. If the previous cover layer thickness is 2 ft or greater, the new cover layer is assigned a thickness of 0.2 ft (This is approximately equal to the sampling depth of a standard US BM-54 Bed Material Sampler). The residual material is mixed with the inactive layer. The initial thickness of the sub-surface layer is calculated using the equilibrium depth concept presented in Section 2.3.2.1. The maximum thickness, however, is constrained by an estimated maximum scour that could occur during the exchange increment. The estimated maximum scour is calculated from the hydraulics, inactive bed gradation, and selected transport function. This constraint will almost always override the thickness calculated using equilibrium depth. A minimum thickness of two times the largest grain size in transport is also imposed. The computation of bed layer adjustments during a time step using Method 2 is depicted on Figures 2-14 through 2-16.
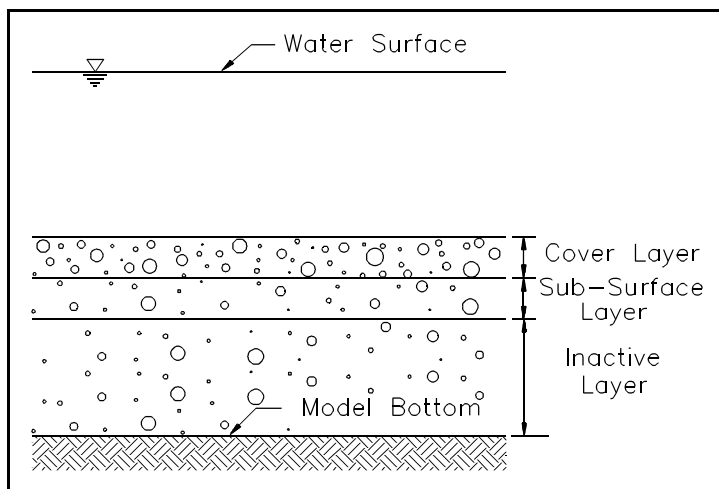
Figure 2-14
Bed Layers at Beginning of Time Step.

€   cover layer composition and thickness are left over from the previous computational time step (maximum 2 ft).

€   Sub-surface layer is created from the inactive layer with identical composition. Thickness is based on equilibrium depth and an estimate of maximum possible erosion during the time step (minimum $2 \in D_{max}$).
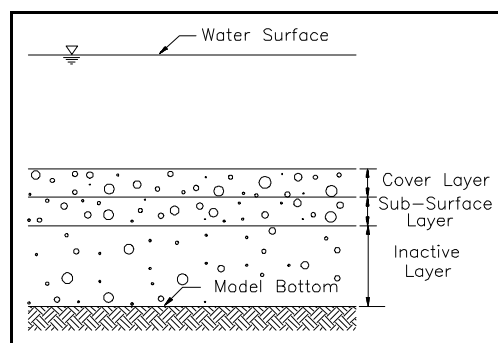

Figure 2-15
Bed Layers at Intermediate Exchange Increment.

€   Cover layer composition coarsens with erosion, gets finer with deposition.

€   Sub-surface composition coarsens with erosion because it has supplied finer materials to cover layer and to flow. It is unchanged with deposition or if armored.
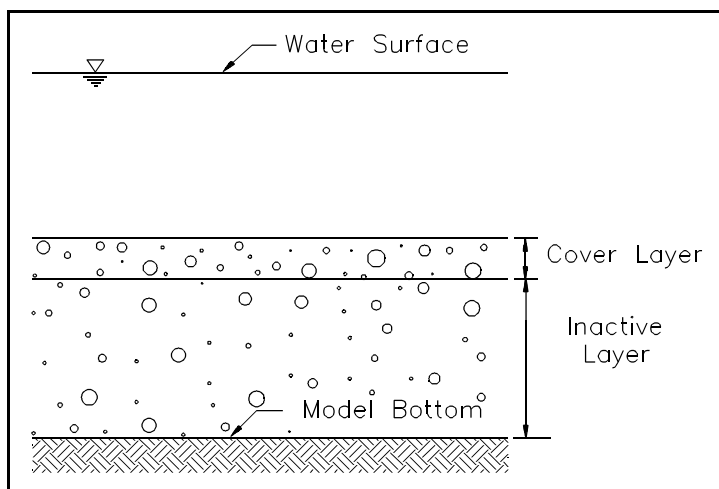

Figure 2-16
Bed Layers at End of Time Step.

€   Inactive layer is unchanged.

€   Cover layer saved and carried over to next time step.

€   Sub-surface and inactive layers combined and completely mixed.

At the beginning of each exchange increment (subdivision of a time step in which the active layer gradation is re-computed, see Section 2.3.1.4) the volume of the cover layer is checked to make sure that there is sufficient material available to cover the bed surface to at least one grain diameter. If not, the cover layer and sub-surface layer are combined to form a new cover layer. This represents a condition where the cover layer is effectively destroyed by the flow energy. A new sub-surface layer is then created from the inactive layer with a thickness and composition identical to the subsurface layer established during the first exchange increment (Figure 2-17).

Bed material size fractions used to calculate sediment transport <u>capacity</u> are based on the composition of the <u>active layer</u>; i.e., the combined volume of both the cover and sub-surface layers.

The sediment continuity equation is then solved for the exchange increment, adding or removing material of the various size classes into or out of the active layer. Deposited material is placed in the cover layer. Eroded material is removed from the cover layer first. The cover layer is intended to act as a moving pavement or armor layer, reducing the sediment transport capacity of finer materials. If there is insufficient volume of a size class present in the cover
layer to meet the sediment deficit, then material may be withdrawn from the sub-surface layer. However, material from a size class cannot be withdrawn from the subsurface layer if there is a sufficient volume of coarser size classes in the cover layer to cover the bed to a thickness of one grain diameter. When there is not a sufficient volume of coarser material in the cover layer to cover 40% of the bed to a thickness of one grain diameter, then supply from the sub-layer is not constrained by the cover layer. A linear supply constraint function is applied to cases when the bed cover is between 40% and 100%.

€   New cover layer is
     mixture of old cover and
     sub-surface layers.

€   New sub-surface layer
     taken from inactive layer
     has same thickness and
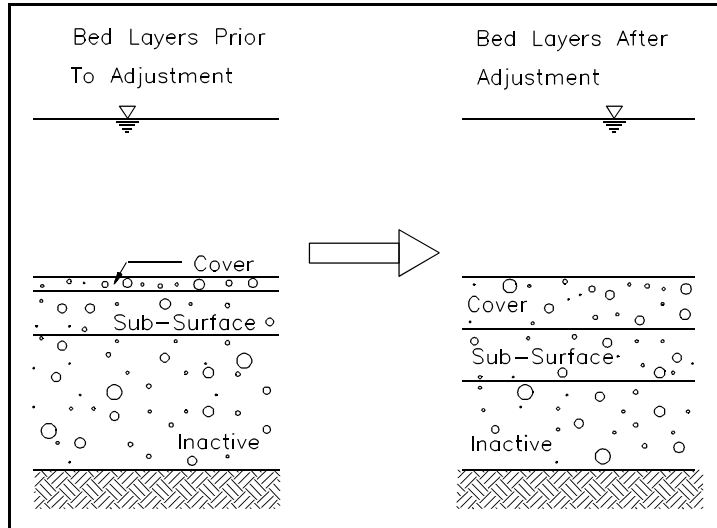   composition as at
     beginning of time step.

Figure 2-17
Bed Layers Change When Cover Layer is Depleted.

2.3.4.1   Sub-Surface Layer

The sub-surface layer is composed of well mixed sediments brought up from the inactive layer plus residual sediment left when the cover layer is destroyed. During erosion it may supply bed sediment as required to meet sediment transport capacity. However, supply of a specific size class from the sub-layer is constrained by coarser material in the cover layer. Availability of material is a constraint. Thickness of the active layer is considered to be very important and is calculated as described earlier.

2.3.4.2   Characteristic Rate of Entrainment

The characteristic rate of entrainment is associated with flow turbulence. Turbulence simulation, however, is beyond the scope of HEC-6. Since sediment entrainment is not instantaneous, a characteristic "flow-distance" was created to approximate a finite rate of entrainment. Using the distance one would need to sample equilibrium concentrations in a flume as a guide, the characteristic distance for entrainment was set at 30 times the flow depth. The entrainment ratio, **ENTRLR**, associated with the rate at which a flow approaches its equilibrium load, is calculated by dividing the reach length by the characteristic distance for entrainment as follows:

$$ENTRLR \quad \frac{REACH\ LENGTH}{30 \quad DEPTH} \tag{2-53}$$

The entrainment coefficient, **ETCON**, is then defined by:

$$ETCON \quad 1.368 \quad e^{ENTRLR} \tag{2-54}$$

ETCON is used to determine what percentage of the equilibrium concentration (for each grain size) is achieved in the reach, and has a maximum of 1.0. Research is needed to substantiate this entrainment hypothesis as well as the appropriate equation and coefficients.

2.3.4.3   Characteristic Rate for Deposition

Deposition occurs when the inflowing sediment discharge is greater than the transport capacity. Not all size classes in a mixture will deposit; therefore, this process is calculated by size class. The rate at which sediment deposits from the flow field is controlled by particle settling velocity as follows:

$$DECAY(i) \quad \frac{V_s(i) \quad t}{D_s(i)} \tag{2-55}$$

where: $D_s(i)$ =
effective depth occupied by sediment size i
t = duration of time step
$V_s(i)$ =
settling velocity for particle size i

2.3.4.4   Some Limitations of Method 2

In low flow deposition zones, the cover layer becomes the depository for fine materials. In a natural river it is not mixed with sub-surface material; therefore, it retains its fine composition and can be easily removed at high flows. In HEC-6, however, transport capacity is calculated based on the composition of the entire active layer. This probably results in under-prediction of transport capacities for the finest size classes. This may depress the transport of fines, resulting in increased deposition and/or decreased scour. Modifications to the technique of computing PI_i for Method 2 may be considered in the future if this becomes a problem. The arbitrary maximum cover layer thickness of 2 ft may hinder deposition during low energy conditions. Mixing of fine material will probably result in underestimation of scour during high flows. Erosion of fine material may be too severely constrained by the Harrison (1950) observation (see Section 2.3.3) which also limits withdrawal from the sub-surface layer.

2.3.5   Bed Elevation Change

When scour or deposition occurs during a time step, HEC-6 adjusts cross section elevations within the movable bed portion of the cross section. For deposition, the streambed portion is moved vertically only if it is within the movable bed specified by the **H** or **HD** record and is below the water surface (i.e., wetted). Deposition is allowed outside of the conveyance limits defined by the **XL** record. Scour occurs only if it is within the movable bed, within the conveyance limits, within the

Figure 2-18
Cross Section Shape Due to Deposition

effective flow limits defined by the **X3** record, and below the water surface. Once the scour or deposition limits are determined, the volume of scour or deposition is divided by the effective width and length of the control volume to obtain the bed elevation change. The vertical components of the cross
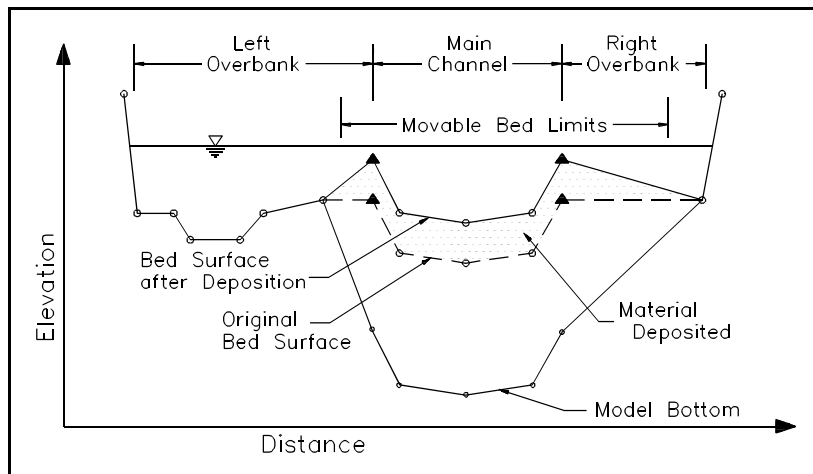

section coordinates within these scour/deposition limits are then adjusted as shown in Figures 2-18 and 2-19. An option for adjusting the geometry in a different manner for deposition is described in Section 3.7.2.
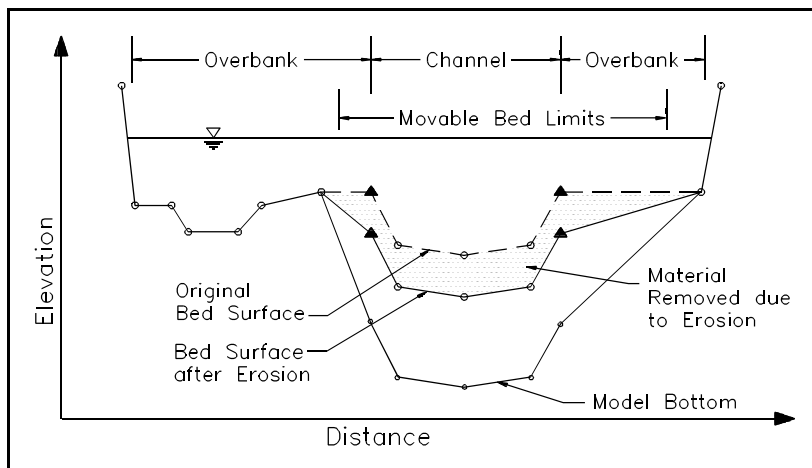
Figure 2-19
Cross Section Shape Due to Erosion

2.3.5.1   Hard Bottom Channel

The special condition of a hard channel bottom (as with a concrete channel) can be approximated by specifying zero sediment depth in the bed sediment reservoir. This is accomplished by specifying the model bottom, **EMB**, equal to the initial thalweg elevation, less a small amount. No sediment is contributed to the flow of sediment at that cross section.   **EMB** is entered in field 2 of the **H** record.

2.3.6 Unit Weight of Deposits

2.3.6.1   Initial Unit Weight

Unit weight is the weight per unit volume of a deposit expressed as dry weight.

$$\gamma_s = (1 - P_d) \cdot SG \cdot \gamma \tag{2-56}$$

where: P_d =
porosity of deposits
     SG =
specific gravity of sediment particles
     γ =
unit weight of water
     γ_s =
unit weight of sediment

Standard field tests are recommended when major decisions depend on the unit weight. Otherwise, use tables on pages 39-41 of "Sedimentation Engineering" (Vanoni 1975) when field data is lacking at your project site.

2.3.6.2   Composite Unit Weight

When dealing with mixtures of particle sizes, the composite unit weight, γ_{sc}, of the mixture is computed using Colby's equation (Vanoni 1975):

$$\gamma_{SC} = \frac{1}{\left[\dfrac{F_{SA}}{\gamma_{SA}} + \dfrac{F_{SL}}{\gamma_{SL}} + \dfrac{F_{CL}}{\gamma_{CL}} \right]} \tag{2-57}$$

where: γ_{SA}, γ_{SL}, γ_{CL} =
unit weight of sand, silt, and clay, respectively
     F_{SA}, F_{SL}, F_{CL} =
fraction of sand, silt, and clay, respectively, in the deposit

2.3.6.3   Consolidated Unit Weight

Compaction of deposited sediments is caused by the grains reorienting and squeezing out the water trapped in the pores. The equation for consolidation (Vanoni 1975) is:

$$\gamma = \gamma_1 + B \cdot \log_{10}T \tag{2-58}$$

where: B =
coefficient of consolidation for silts or clay
     T =
accumulated time in years
     γ_1 =
initial unit weight of the sediment deposit, usually after one year of consolidation

Suggested values of γ_1 and B are given on page 43 of Vanoni (1975).

The average consolidated unit weight over a time period T requires integration over time. This is computed using the following relationship developed by Miller (1953).

$$\gamma_{ave} = \gamma_1 + B \left[\frac{T}{T-1} \right] \log_{10}T - 0.434 \, B \tag{2-59}$$

These unit weights are used to convert sediment weight to volume for computation of the bed elevation change.

2.3.7 Sediment Particle Properties

Four basic sediment properties are important in sediment transport prediction: size, shape factor, specific gravity, and fall velocity. Grain size classes are fixed in HEC-6 and described in Section 3.3. The particle shape factor, **SF**, is defined by:

$$SF \quad \frac{c}{(a \quad b)^{1/2}} \qquad (2\text{--}60)$$

where: **a, b, c**
= the lengths of the longest, intermediate, and shortest, respectively, mutually perpendicular axes of a sediment particle

The particle shape factor is 1.0 for a perfect sphere and can be as low as 0.1 for very irregularly shaped particles. HEC-6 uses a shape factor default of 0.667 but it can be user specified. If a "sedimentation diameter" is used, which is determined by the particle's fall velocity characteristics, the particle shape factor of 1.0 should be used. If the actual sieve diameter is used, the actual shape factor should be used.

Specific gravity of a particle is governed by its mineral makeup. In natural river systems the bed material is dominated by quartz which has a specific gravity of 2.65. HEC-6 uses 2.65 as a default; however, values of specific gravities for sand, silt, and clay may be input.

Two techniques for calculating particle fall velocity are available in HEC-6. The first is based upon the fall velocities determined by Toffaleti (1966) and is similar to Rubey's method (Vanoni 1975). This method assumes 0.9 as the shape factor. The second, which takes into consideration the particle shape factor, utilizes the procedure described in ICWR (1957), and is described in detail by Williams (1980). The second method is the default.

2.3.8 Silt and Clay Transport

2.3.8.1 Cohesive Sediment Deposition

The equation for silt and clay deposition (Krone 1962) in a recirculating flume at slow aggregation rates and suspended sediment load concentrations less than 300 mg/€ is:

$$\ln \frac{C}{C_o} \quad k \, t \qquad (2\text{--}61)$$

or

$$\frac{C}{C_o} \quad e^{(\,k\,t)} \qquad (2\text{--}62)$$

where: **C** =
concentration at end of time period
C_o =
concentration at beginning of time period
D =
water depth
k€ $= \dfrac{V_s P_r}{2.3 D}$
P_r =
probability that a floc will stick to bed $(1 - €_b/€_d)$
t =
time = reach length/flow velocity
V_s =
settling velocity of sediment particles

τ_b =
bed shear stress
τ_d =
critical bed shear stress for deposition.

This ratio is multiplied by the inflowing clay or silt concentration to obtain the transport
potential. The concentration is converted to volume and deposited on the bed.

2.3.8.2   Cohesive Sediment Scour

Erosion is based upon work by Parthenaides (1965) and adapted by Ariathurai and Krone (1976). Particle erosion is determined by:

$$C = \frac{M_1 \, S_a}{Q} \left[\frac{\tau_b}{\tau_s} - 1 \right] + C_o \qquad (2\text{-}63)$$

where: C =
concentration at end of time period
C_o =
concentration at beginning of time period
M_1 =
erosion rate for particle scour
Q =
water discharge
S_a =
surface area exposed to scour
τ_b =
bed shear stress
τ_s =
critical bed shear for particle scour
γ =
unit weight of water

As the bed shear stress increases, particle erosion gives way to mass erosion and the erosion rate increases. Because the mass erosion rate can theoretically be infinite, Ariathurai and Krone (1976) recommended that a "characteristic time", T_e, be used. With a computation interval of Δt, the mass erosion equation becomes:

$$C = \frac{M_2 \, S_a}{Q} \cdot \frac{T_e}{t} + C_o \qquad (2\text{-}64)$$

where: Δt =
duration of time step
M_2 =
erosion rate for mass erosion
T_e =
characteristic time of erosion

Ariathurai and Krone (1976) give guidance on how to obtain or estimate T_e, M_1, and M_2. Because erosion thresholds and rates for cohesive sediments are dependent on specific sediment particle and ambient water conditions such as mineralogy, sodium adsorption ratio, cation exchange capacity, pH, salinity, and depositional history, in situ and/or laboratory testing are the recommended methods to determine the erosion characteristics of cohesive sediments. A good discussion of cohesive material transport is found in USACE (1991).

2.3.8.3   Influence of Clay on the Active Layer

The presence of clay in the streambed can cause the bed's strength to be greater than the shear stress required to move individual particles. This results in limiting the entrainment rate under erosion conditions. HEC-6 attempts to emulate this process by first checking the percentage of clay in the bed. If more than 10% of the bed is composed of clay, the entrainment rate of silts, sands and gravels is limited to the entrainment rate of the

clay. This also prevents the erosion of silts, sands and gravels before the erosion of clay even if the bed shear is sufficient to erode those particles but not enough to erode the cohesive clay.

2.3.8.4   Mudflow Constraint on Transport Potential

Because Einstein's concept of the "equilibrium concentration" is utilized for the non-cohesive load, no additional constraints are required to limit the concentrations of sands and gravels. However, when cohesive sediments are included there is no equilibrium concentration. HEC-6 assumes that erosion and entrainment of fines is limited by a "maximum mudflow concentration". The maximum mudflow concentration used by HEC-6, based on two measurements at Mt. St. Helens, is 800,000 ppm. If the concentration of fines (i.e., silt and clay) at any cross section exceeds 50,000 ppm, a counter is incremented and a message will be printed stating the total number of times high concentrations were detected. When the concentration exceeds 800,000 ppm, each grain size concentration is proportionally reduced so that the total concentration is 800,000 ppm.